DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 139 724 SO 010 096

AUTHOR	Mahoney, Joseph E.
TITLE	Improving Reading Skills in Social Studies. How To Do It Series, Series 2, No. 1.
INSTITUTION	National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	77
NOTE	9p.; For related documents, see SO 010 097-098 ; Not available in hard copy due to marginal legibility of the original document
AVAILABLE FROM	National Council for the Social Studies, 1515 Wilson Boulevard, Suite number 1, Arlington, Virginia 22209 ($1.00 paper copy, quantity discounts available)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Cloze Procedure; *Content Reading; Elementary Secondary Education; Measurement; Readability; Reading Ability; Reading Comprehension; *Reading Improvement; *Reading Skills; *Social Studies; *Teaching Methods; Vocabulary

ABSTRACT

Some practical ways to improve reading skills in social studies classes without sacrificing content objectives and goals are presented. It is emphasized that social studies teachers are best suited to teach reading skills in their own subject field. Social studies teachers need to focus on three reading skills: vocabulary development and word recognition skills, comprehension skills, and study skills. To make a conscious effort to help students improve reading skills, several methods are suggested for gaining an information base about students reading ability. These include use of standardized tests of reading ability; informal surveys of students' reading habits; and content inventory consisting of reading passages followed by questions about the main ideas, inference, and details. The cloze technique, in which students fill in blanks in a reading passage, indicates student understanding of the central idea as well as vocabulary development. Students' reading gaps can be determined by comparing their reading ability with textbook readability based on the Fry scale. Effective teaching techniques to improve content reading are discussed. These include purposeful reading directed by teachers' prereading questions and discussion, and the SQ3R method (survey, question, read, recite, review). Directed reading activity, in which teachers guide students through reading assignments, is recommended. In addition, students should keep vocabulary notebooks. (Author/AV)

Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original.

Series 2
No. 1

How To Do It Series

SP010096

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL BY MICRO FICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
NCSS
TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

ED139724

Improving Reading Skills in Social Studies

Joseph E. Mahony
Assistant Professor of Education
Virginia Commonwealth University

Reading in Social Studies

"Every teacher a teacher of reading" is a hackneyed phrase which often strikes fear in the hearts of social studies teachers. All teachers are concerned about the effectiveness of students in reading content material, but many teachers lack the know-how for teaching reading in their content areas. Unless the phrase is fully explained and unless practical suggestions are offered for attacking the problems in content reading, many teachers may become resentful of being asked to teach reading as well as content. The purpose of this publication is to present some practical ways to improve reading skills in social studies classes without sacrificing content objectives and goals.

A common misconception among teachers is that reading is a subject. Reading is not a subject, but a myriad of skills to be applied to various reading tasks. There is no dichotomy between content and reading; they are one. David L. Shepherd, an authority on content reading, states, ". . . the teaching of reading is not an activity separate from the content but a part of it. The procedure incorporates the techniques which show how information can be attained. You no longer teach just the 'what' of content, but also the 'how'; and of course in teaching the students how to obtain the content, the content itself is learned."[1] Shepherd continues, "The social studies teach-

[1]David Shepherd, *Comprehensive High School Reading Methods* (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill, 1973), p. 11.

Copyright © 1977 by the National Council for the Social Studies

er realizes the vital, all pervasive nature of language, but he most often sees his emphasis as one of content. The content comes first with the reading skills subordinate to the nature of the content. In practice that means that reading is taught if there is time. However, no such decision should have to be made. The teaching of content and the skills of reading are fused. Reading is the means, and the end is content acquisition and understanding resulting in the development of specific attitudes."[2]

There are three keys to effectively incorporating reading instruction into the teaching of social studies: knowledge of the reading process, application of this knowledge to social studies reading, and specific teaching techniques. In addition, some changes in attitude toward reading instruction and teaching process can increase the teaching effectiveness of all content teachers and improve the learning of their students.

All the basic reading skills are used in reading social studies materials, but the priority of skills varies depending on the nature of the material and the purpose for which it is being read. Social studies teachers need to focus on three reading skills areas: vocabulary development and word recognition skills; comprehension skills; and study skills.

Social studies teachers are the most appropriate persons to teach students how to read the content of their courses. Karlin states, "Ideally, each teacher of content subjects should provide intensive instruction in overcoming difficulties in comprehending and interpreting information found in his textbook and supplementary reading."[3] Karlin continues, ". . . the teacher of content should not assume that he cannot assist his students with textbooks and other reading. One of his aims is to help his students master the content of his specialty, and one way to achieve this is to teach content through reading."[4] Since content teachers understand the organization of their material, its technical vocabulary and concepts better than anyone, including the reading specialists, they seem most qualified to deal with this information through reading. However, they must first gain an information base about students, materials, and teaching techniques.

Information Base

Students' Reading Ability

Developing a base of information about students' reading ability is essential for all teachers who wish to make a conscious effort to help their students improve reading skills. Standardized test results are the most readily available source of information to such teachers. The data can usually be obtained, on request, from school administrators, guidance personnel, or reading specialists. There is much information available about students' reading abilities. Achievement tests usually include comprehension and vocabulary subtests which provide scores according to grade level. Reading tests give data concerning specific reading skills, such as: comprehension—main idea, details, inference; vocabulary; word analysis—phonetic and structural; use of context clues; and study skills.

Once data are gathered, a picture of each class's reading ability can be drawn. One class a week can be charted so that the effort is not too time consuming. This basic information can aid the teacher to adjust materials and teaching methods to the reading ability of students. One example of a reading chart for a class follows:

EIGHTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES
CLASS A
Reading Scores from Achievement Test
Comprehension—Grade Level Scores

4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th
John Adams	Helen Jones	Name	Name	Name	Name	Name
4.3	5.7	6.1	7.0	8.1	9.0	10.2
Harry Smith	Name	Name	Name	Name	Name	Name
4.8	5.9	6.3	7.4	8.3	9.2	10.3
		Name	Name	Name	Name	
		6.8	7.6	8.3	9.3	
		Name	Name	Name	Name	
		6.9	7.9	8.4	9.5	
			Name	Name		
			7.9	8.6		
				Name		
				8.3		
				Name		
				8.8		

Such charts give an overview of the reading ability of the class; and they have implications for use of materials, reading assignments, and teaching strategies.

Reading Survey

Information about students' reading habits and attitudes toward social studies can be obtained through use of a reading survey. If a survey is given to one class a week, a portrait of interests and attitudes can be developed quickly. Patterns, of which the teacher was unaware, may become apparent and call for immediate correction in materials and/or reading assignments. A survey can be constructed by the social studies teacher, perhaps with the aid of a reading specialist. Examples of the types of questions that might be asked follow:

- Do you like to read?
- Do you have difficulty in reading?
  Explain.
- What is your greatest problem in reading?
- Do you have difficulty in reading the social studies material?
  Explain.
- Do you read the newspaper?
  Which newspaper?
  How often?
  What parts of the paper do you read?
- Do you read magazines?
  Which magazines?
- Are the reading assignments clear to you?
- Do you have difficulty reading reference materials?
  Explain.
- Have you done any leisure reading as a result of class activities?
  List the books.
- Do you have any suggestions about the reading materials and reading assignments?

Content Inventory

To determine students' ability to read the textbook, a content inventory can be given. This inventory provides immediate feedback on how students will function with the text. The inventory consists of four representative passages of 250 to 350 words taken from the text. The passages should be evenly spaced throughout the text, and comprehension questions should be developed for each passage. Questions testing for main idea, inference, and detail should be included. Multiple-choice questions will

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 188.
[3] Robert Karlin, *Teaching Reading in High School*, Second Edition, (New York: Bobbs-Merrill Company Inc., 1972), p. 293.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 293.

save time in correction. A score of 60% could be used as a minimum passing score for each passage. A score of less than 60% would then indicate that the material is too difficult for the student. An abbreviated example of such an inventory follows:

> There were few good roads in the United States when people started moving to the West. That is why people so often traveled on streams and rivers and along the river valleys. They were the "roads" of the early days. For the first pioneers, the Ohio, Cumberland, and Tennessee rivers were especially useful "roads."
>
> Streams and rivers did not always go where the early settlers wanted to go. So they often followed Indian trails or paths which animals made to watering places. But those routes were not enough either. So the pioneers chopped new trails through trees or thick underbrush. Gradually, the pioneers built some narrow dirt roads which later settlers followed. Eventually, the National Government helped to build better roads to the West. Today, several of the highways of our Interstate Highways System follow the routes of these early roads.
>
> The map shows some famous routes to the West. Pioneers who were heading to the Northwest Territory used the Mohawk Trail which follows the valley of the Mohawk River. Farther south was Forbes Road. It started in Harrisburg, went over the mountains, and ended at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Some pioneers wanted to go farther west. What bodies of water could they use from the end of the routes?
>
> A third route to the West was the National, or Cumberland, Road. This road had a crushed rock surface and cost about $13,000 a mile to build. It was to start in Maryland and end in Illinois. Construction was begun in 1808 at Cumberland, Maryland. By 1817, the road had reached as far west as Wheeling, in what is now West Virginia. By 1833, during Andrew Jackson's second term as President, it went as far as Columbus, Ohio. It was not completed to Vandalia, Illinois, until fifteen years after Andrew Jackson left office.[1]

Examples of questions:

Main Idea
Which would be the best title for the passage?
1. Trails to the West.
2. Building Roads to the West.
3. Waterways to the West.

Inference
Why did it take so long to build some of the first roads to the West?
1. People were not interested in going West.
2. The construction was costly and covered long distances over rugged terrain.
3. Indians blocked travel.

Detail
Which trail used a crushed rock surface?
1. Mohawk Trail.
2. Forbes Road.
3. Cumberland Road.

Each of the four passages should have five questions attached, with one main idea question, one inference question, and three detail questions. Each passage should be scored, and an average score should be computed for all passages. Patterns of strength and weaknesses can be determined by noting how students score on the main idea, the inference, and the detail questions. If a great many students are weak in detecting the main idea, this situation would warrant attention. The results of each class can be tabulated as follows:

FIFTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES
CLASS A
Scores from Content Inventory

Passages	A	B	C	D	Average
Sally Bellows	80%	100%	100%	60%	85%
George Adams	60%	40%	80%	40%	55%
etc.					

Sally has done very well and will probably have few problems understanding the text; however, George will have difficulty understanding the text. He should be provided with an easier text and given aid in strengthening his reading skills.

The content inventory is easily administered and yields specific information about students' reading ability in relation to the text being used in the social studies class. The information obtained tells the teacher which students read the text well, which students read the text only fairly well and will need considerable teacher aid, and which students should be provided with easier textual material.

Cloze Technique

The Cloze technique is a relatively new and innovative way of assessing comprehension. However, the technique requires sound teacher judgment due to its somewhat imprecise nature. One method is to leave each fifth word blank and ask the student to fill in the blanks with the missing word or an acceptable synonym. The student must use the context to guess the words, and passages are scored on the number of correct words or synonyms supplied.

Example:

> Have any of the modern methods for determining readability of instructional material or testing reading comprehension proved to be innovative? This is among the __1__ questions that reading teachers __2__ been asking in an __3__ to solve the dilemma __4__ ineffectual procedures of predicting __5__ in reading. The reading __6__ is faced with many __7__ and questions concerning teaching __8__ testing for comprehension skills __9__ selecting suitable material on __10__ child's instructional level. In __11__, reading researchers have long __12__ a research tool that __13__ both valid and reliable, __14__ the additional benefits that __15__ could be easily and __16__ constructed and easily scored. To date the Cloze Procedure has proved the most promising.

Of course, the words deleted in the above paragraph were: many, have, attempt, of, success, teacher, problems, and, and, the, addition, sought, is, with, it, and, inexpensively.[2]

To construct a Cloze exercise, a passage is selected from the reading material that a pupil would use in the classroom. The teacher must then decide on which deletion formula is to be used. Deleting every tenth word serves

[1] From *One Nation: The United States*, by Leonard S. Kenworthy, of the Ginn Social Science Series, © Copyright, 1971, by Ginn and Company (Xerox Corporation). Used with permission.

[2] Andrea Herman and James Brozick, "A Survey of Research Since 1965 on the Cloze Procedure as a Measure of Comprehension, Readability, Validity, and Reliability, and as a Teaching and Testing Device," Unpublished Paper, University of Pittsburgh, 1970, p. 1. Used with permission.

best for textual materials that are factually heavy. Every fifth word may be deleted for narrative materials. Having selected a deletion formula, the teacher should count from the first word in the second sentence. The first and last sentences in the passage should be left intact. The deleted words should be indicated by underlined spaces, as in the above example. These blank spaces should be of uniform length.

If the exercise is to be used in teaching, the blanks can be as long as the deleted word in order to offer a clue. An additional clue may be provided by giving the first letter of the deleted word in the blank space. In any case, the pupil's task is to read the mutilated passage and attempt to predict the deleted words.

In scoring a Cloze passage, when used as a test, only the exact word replacement is counted as correct. Passages of fifty deletions should be used to facilitate more relevant scoring and to effectively sample the pupil's comprehension. Bormuth[7] in 1967 compared scores on fifty-item Cloze passages with scores on multiple-choice tests over the same material, and he found that a Cloze score of 44% correct responses was equivalent to a score of 75% on a multiple-choice test. Using these data as a guide, the teacher can use simple arithmetic to change raw Cloze scores into more understandable percentage scores.

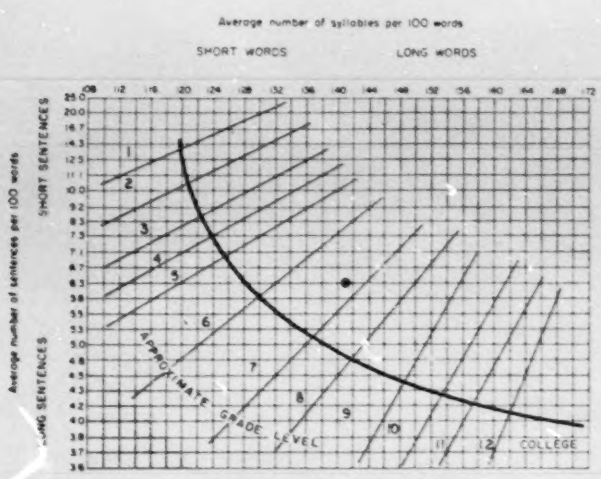
When the Cloze exercises are used for teaching, synonyms for the deleted words may be accepted, since "exact word only" replacements limit the vocabulary development of the pupils. Discussion should always follow a Cloze exercise in the teaching situation to enable students to express the reasons for their choices.[8]

Readability

It is important that teachers identify the readability level of texts in use and those being considered for adoption. There are many readability formulas that can be used to determine readability. The following is the Fry Graph for Estimating Readability, which is a quick, easy technique for estimating the difficulty level of materials from grade one through college.[9]

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY

by Edward Fry, Rutgers University Reading Center, New Jersey



DIRECTIONS: Randomly select 3 one hundred word passages from a book or an article. Plot average number of syllables and average number of sentences per 100 words on graph to determine the grade level of the material. Choose more passages per book if great variability is observed and conclude that the book has uneven readability. Few books will fall in gray area but when they do grade level scores are invalid.

EXAMPLE:

	SYLLABLES	SENTENCES
1st Hundred Words	124	6.6
2nd Hundred Words	141	5.5
3rd Hundred Words	158	6.8
AVERAGE	141	6.3

READABILITY 7TH GRADE (see dot plotted on graph)

Fry[10] provides the following directions for obtaining reading level estimates (as partially adopted by Forgan and Mangrum).[11]

1. *Select a representative passage from written material for which you wish to know the reading level.* Count 100 words in the sample, skipping all proper nouns, dates, and numerals. As a general rule of thumb, skip words that are capitalized (American, European, Kent State University). Make sure you begin counting at the beginning of a sentence. Do not count the words in a title or heading.
2. *Count the number of sentences in the 100-word passage.* If the final sentence does not end at the end of your 100 words, determine what proportion of the sentence you are including in the 100-word count. Estimate the last sentence to the nearest tenth. For example, if the final sentence in a 100-word count has sixteen words, and eight of these are in the 100-word count, the final sentence would be counted as 0.5 sentences.
3. *Count the number of syllables in the 100-word passage.* For example: *though*—one syllable; *counted*—two syllables; *determine*—three syllables; *appropriate*—four syllables. Keep in mind that when a word is pronounced there will be a syllable for each vowel sound. Remember that proper nouns, dates, and numerals are not counted.
4. *Refer to the graph.* Notice the grid of intersecting lines. The vertical lines represent average number of syllables per 100 words. The horizontal lines represent the average number of sentences per 100 words. Where any two intersecting vertical and horizontal lines meet, approximate grade levels are revealed. Record the level of your selection at this time. Most of the intersecting points will fall near the curved line. If the intersecting point falls in the gray area, conclude that the results are invalid and select another 100-word sample and repeat the procedure.

Reading Gap

Through a comparison of the student's reading ability (test results) and the readability of the text(s) used in the social studies class, the student's reading gap can be determined. For example, if the reading score indicated a comprehension of 6.2 and the text readability is 8th grade, then one might estimate a reading gap of two years.

Whether or not the student with a reading gap should be provided with an easier text would be determined by

[7]John Bormuth, "New Data on Readability," Department of Health, Education and Welfare, May 5, 1967. Ed 016-586.

[8]Herman and Bozick, *op. cit.*, p. 86. Used with permission.

[9]Edward Fry, "A Readability Formula That Saves Time," *Journal of Reading* (Newark: International Reading Association, April, 1968), pp. 513-516, 575-578.

[10]Edward Fry, *Reading Instruction for Classroom and Clinic* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1972), pp. 231–233.

[11]Harry Forgan and Charles Mangrum, *Teaching Content Area Reading Skills—A Modular Preservice and Inservice Program* (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill, 1976), pp. 20–21. Used with permission.

the teacher considering, first, the size of the gap; and, secondly, the results of the student's content inventory. With a moderate gap, the student may still obtain a great deal from the text. For example, if the reading score indicated a comprehension of 7.4 and the readability is 9th grade, then one might estimate a reading gap of one and a half years. But the student seems to comprehend the text well with an 80% average score on the content inventory. With effective use of the text (to be discussed later) the student can understand most of the concepts presented.

In other cases, a gap might be too great for the student to profit from use of the text. For example, if the reading score indicates a comprehension of 5.7 and the text readability is 9th grade, then one might estimate a reading gap of three and a half years. If there is an average score of 40% on the content inventory, some other material should be provided for the student.

It is sound practice to use texts of various difficulty levels to accommodate readers of differing abilities. Some publishers provide multi-level texts which are written on two readability levels. For example, one text may be written on an eighth-grade level; and another, on the same subject, may be written on the fifth-grade level.

Teacher Observation

Knowledgeable observation also can yield information about students' physical disabilities and reading habits.

Physical problems:

- Do the student's eyes water?
- Does the student blink and/or rub his or her eyes?
- Does the student hold the book too close or too far from his or her eyes?
- Does the student have difficulty hearing what is said? (Hearing problems often have concomitant reading problems.)

A conversation with the school nurse and review of health records will confirm any suspicion of physical problems.

Reading Habits

- Is the student persistent in a reading task?
- Is there mouthing of words?
- Is there head movement?
- Is there finger pointing?

Mouthing of words, head movement, and finger pointing all tend to reduce reading rate, and often indicate insecurity in reading. These unconscious habits can usually be corrected by making the student aware of the activity. If mouthing persists, have the student hold a finger lightly over his/her lips to become conscious of the movement. In persistent head movement, the student can hold his/her hand against his/her cheek to serve as a reminder. The most successful technique for overcoming finger pointing is reminding the student to let the eyes do the reading.

TEACHING TECHNIQUES

If reading instruction is to be actively incorporated into the teaching of content, then specific, practical teaching techniques must be employed by the social studies teacher. The following are some proven techniques.

Purposeful Reading

By providing purposeful reading assignments, teachers help students become more active, aggressive readers. Such reading improves their comprehension of content. Through prereading questions and discussion, goals may be set which provide task-oriented reading assignments. By surveying assignments before class ends, students can become aware of the major concepts involved and how they relate to previously learned concepts. The teacher should point out bold-faced headings, pictures, charts, and maps that are of importance. New vocabulary may be discussed, and time can be allowed for students to ask questions about the assignment. Students should be told the main purpose for reading the assignment; for example: reading for the main ideas; details; sequence; cause and effect; and so on. Also, depending on the purposes set, suggestions should be given for how to read the assignment. The time spent in providing for purposeful reading tasks will vary depending upon the length and importance of the assignment, but it is time that is well spent.

SQ3R

It is necessary that students learn techniques for reading content material. Early training in reading skills is usually done with narrative material, and rarely is much done to aid the transfer of skills to the reading of content material. Reading expository material is somewhat different from reading narrative, and the material is often difficult. The structure, heavy vocabulary load, and rapid presentation of concepts require that students develop strategies for attacking content material. One technique for studying textual material is Robinson's SQ3R.[12] This technique includes five basic steps: Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review. To train students in its use, the teacher might use some of the following suggestions. First, survey the reading assignment by looking at and discussing the headings (bold-faced print), pictures, graphs, or tables. The survey emphasizes the main ideas and orients the students to the materials. The teacher may obtain immediate feedback by asking the students, "What do you know about this topic?"

Second, ask the students to change the headings to questions as they read. For example, if the heading is "Overland Routes to the West," the question might be "What are the Overland Routes to the West?" This questioning step provides students with purposes and aids them in seeing important points being made.

Third, students read the assignment and mentally answer the questions. Fourth, after each section the student looks away from the book and mentally recites the answers to his or her self-imposed questions. If the student cannot answer the question, he/she should reread the section.

Fifth, when the student has finished reading the entire assignment, he or she should look back at the headings and recite the major points. Similar daily and weekly review will help students to retain information.

In summary, the survey portion of SQ3R provides the readiness activities necessary for student understanding of the material. Questioning is aimed at making the reader task-oriented and an active searcher for answers. Through classroom practice, students should learn to automatically rephrase headings and provide themselves with task-oriented, answer-seeking reading. Teacher and student questions also may be employed.

Use of this technique provides direction and focus for students' energies when they are reading text materials. The SQ3R method aids the student in extracting and understanding the essential material in a text. This technique should be taught through classroom demonstrations, and students should be encouraged to employ the technique

[12] Francis Robinson, *Effective Study*, Rev. ed. (New York: Harper and Row, 1961), pp. 13–48.

independently. Time spent in teaching SQ3R should not be viewed as taking time away from teaching content, for mastery of this valuable study technique improves content learning. The process fuses content and reading.

SQ3R-Study Guides

Teachers can also use the SQ3R technique as the basis of student-made study guides. This is particularly helpful for the poor readers. In developing such guides, students extract and write the essential concepts from their assignments and use the notes for review later. The questions used in the guide may come from bold-faced print headings that have been changed to questions, from teacher-directed questions, from student questions, or from any combination of these questions. Based on students' understandings, the answers are written in their own words. The student writes only enough information to jog the memory when reviewing the guide. Each guide will be unique and meet the needs of individual students. Typically, it will include: main ideas, important details, new vocabulary, and examples of various concepts. In the following example the student has changed the bold-faced print headings to questions.

Causes of the Revolution. The exact causes of the American Revolution are the subject of debate among historians. It seems apparent today that there was no one specific cause. Instead, it seems that there were a number of causes, of which some varied in importance from region to region, and even from person to person.

Nevertheless, most social scientists agree that the Revolution occurred because the British government failed to meet what most colonists had come to believe were the needs of the colonial society. A variety of circumstances contributed to that failure. Some were political, but others were either geographic, social, or economic.

For example, Great Britain and its American colonies were separated by some 3000 miles of ocean, and the physical environment in the colonies was much different from that in Great Britain. Partly as a result of such geographic circumstances, two different societies developed which failed to communicate or to understand each other's needs.

Moreover, by the last quarter of the eighteenth century, Great Britain was beginning to develop an industrial economy rather rapidly. Britain's need to have its colonies supply raw materials and buy British manufactured goods led to new restrictions on the colonists' trade. But the colonies had become accustomed to freedom from control, and had developed strong economies of their own—largely agricultural and commercial. Their economic needs differed from those of Great Britain, and they resented restrictions on their trade. Thus neither side understood the economic needs of the other, and disputes arose.

Finally, the colonists resented, perhaps most of all, British regulations which they believed violated their political rights—their rights as Englishmen. "No taxation without representation" became a slogan of the colonists. They felt that Parliament had no right to tax them as long as they had no representation in Parliament. At stake was the idea of home rule by the colonial governments. Royal governors, who tried to enforce new regulations, became symbols of British tyranny. Before long many of the colonists became convinced that they could not regain their basic rights unless they were governed by officials that they, themselves, had chosen.

At first most colonists were interested in self-government, not independence from Great Britain. However, events soon changed this attitude.

Early Revolutionary Government. The response of the American colonies to Britain's new colonial policies reflected the colonists' belief in the importance of political action and their confidence in their ability to govern themselves. In 1765 delegates from nine colonies met in New York as the Stamp Act Congress to protest against the Stamp Act, which was a form of taxation, and other laws passed by Parliament. By 1773 there were Committees of Correspondence in every colony. These committees of patriots organized resistance against British policies and gained the support of an increasing number of colonies.

Following the Boston Tea Party, Parliament passed several laws designed to punish the colonies for their resistance. These were called the Intolerable Acts. In response to these acts, delegates from every colony but Georgia met in Philadelphia on September 5, 1774, as the First Continental Congress. This Congress drafted a Declaration of Rights which protested the actions taken against the colonies. The delegates also urged the colonists to boycott English goods. Then the Congress adjourned, but not before it had called for a second meeting of delegates to be held in Philadelphia in 1775.

By the time the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia in May, 1775, fighting between colonists and British troops had already broken out. The Second Continental Congress immediately organized an army and appointed George Washington as its commander. It also took steps to borrow money, to issue currency, and to open negotiations with foreign nations as possible allies against Great Britain. Although there was no constitution or other legal basis for its existence, the Second Continental Congress became, in fact, America's first national government. On July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence officially proclaimed the existence of the United States of America. From that date until March 1, 1781, when the Articles of Confederation went into effect, the affairs of the nation were handled by the Second Continental Congress.[1]

STUDENT STUDY GUIDE

Question #1	Answer #1
What were the causes of the Revolution?	*No one cause* • Didn't meet needs of colonies • Lack of communication (distance) • Restrictions in trade American slogan, "No taxation without representation" • No representation in Parliament

[1]Daniel Wit and P. Allan Dionisopoulous, *Our American Government and Political System* (River Forest: Laidlaw Brothers, 1973), pp. 88–89. By permission of Laidlaw Brothers, A Division of Doubleday & Company, Inc.

Question #2	Answer #2
What was the structure of the Early Revolutionary Government?	*Stamp Act Congress, 1765* (9 colonies) • Protesting Stamp Act Committees of Correspondence • Organized resistance *First Continental Congress, 1774* • Reaction to Intolerable Acts • Results: Declaration of Rights • Boycott of English goods Definition—"Boycott," no purchasing • Fighting *Second Continental Congress, 1775* • 1st National government • Results: Army—Washington Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776)

Classroom training helps students to become proficient in the development of study guides. Upon completion of a guide, teacher and students may compare answers and make critical analyses of individual guides viewed on an overhead projector. Initially, all guides should be collected and analyzed by the teacher. Later, when the students become comfortable with the technique, guides can be checked randomly.

The construction of study guides provides an opportunity for the student to carefully dissect the reading material by extracting the most important information. The ability to extract such information indicates the extent of a student's understanding of the material.

Directed Reading Activity

Another productive activity that joins the teaching of content and reading is known as the Directed Reading Activity. This is a classroom activity in which the teacher carefully guides students through a reading assignment. Stauffer's[14] Directed Reading Activity is applicable to content reading through the use of Shepherd's[15] outline. His outline follows:

1. Preparation for reading
   - A. Investigating and expanding the background of student experience.
     1. Finding out what the students know.
     2. Noting misconceptions of the students.
     3. Filling in with information to give the students an adequate background for understanding.
     4. Arousing student interest.
     5. Giving them an awareness of the significance of the information.
   - B. Previewing the reading material.
     1. Noting the basic structure of the information—the introduction, summary, specific sections.
     2. Discussing the title and subtitles.
     3. Directing attention to the graphic aids: maps, pictures, diagrams, etc.
     4. Noting study aids: specific summaries, questions, vocabulary lists.
     5. Noting new vocabulary which is usually italicized in a textbook.
   - C. Introduce the vocabulary pertinent to the fundamental concepts.
     1. Clarifying basically the fundamental conceptual terms, usually one to five in number.
     2. Analyzing the structure of the words, if necessary, to aid word recognition.
     3. Assisting students to bring their experiences to bear on the meanings of words.
     4. Alerting students to the specific meaning as the word is used in the text.
   - D. Evolve purposes for reading.
     1. Evolving purposes in terms of the student's own background and needs, those of the group, and in terms of the understandings desired from materials.
     2. Helping students to think of purposes as well.
2. Reading the material silently
   - A. Noting the students' ability to adjust their reading to the purposes set up, and to the material.
   - B. Observing students to note specific areas of need.
     1. Vocabulary: recognition of the word, specific meaning as applied to the content.
     2. Comprehension: organization of data, finding answers to purposes, noting relationships within data.
3. Developing comprehension
   - A. Discussing answers to purpose questions.
   - B. Clarifying and guiding further development of the concepts and vocabulary, introducing new vocabulary if needed.
   - C. Assisting the students in noting organization and in recall of pertinent facts.
   - D. Noting need for further information from both the text and other source materials.
   - E. Redefining purposes; setting new purposes for reading.
4. Re-reading (silent and/or oral, in part or in entirety)
   - A. Clarifying further the essential pertinent information and concepts.
   - B. Giving specific skill training in comprehension as indicated by needs of individuals and the group.
     1. Seeing organization of data.
     2. Interpreting data: Drawing conclusions, making inferences, making generalizations, seeing interrelationships of data.
     3. Evaluating: Making judgments, noting author's intent, seeing the significance of the material, noting the use of language.
     4. Applying information to real life situations, formulating new ideas, reorganizing old ideas.
     5. Noting use of words: emotive, new meanings, contextual usage, technical terms, indefinite and general terms.
     6. Setting up areas for further reading and research.
5. Following up the information
   - A. Setting up problems requiring further information.
     1. Using problem-solving; delineating the problem.
     2. Locating additional information.
     3. Reading to get additional information.
     4. Selecting and organizing pertinent ideas related to problem.

[14]Russell Stauffer, *Teaching Reading as a Thinking Process* (New York: Harper and Row, 1969), pp. 14–15.

[15]Shepherd, *op. cit.*, pp. 132–134. Used with permission.

5. Concluding and generalizing from data.
6. Preparing the presentation of the report.

B. Choosing supplementary recreational reading related to topic to develop and extend interests, attitudes, and appreciations.
C. Extending further understandings and clarifying further concepts as necessary.
D. Analyzing the information and helping students to relate it to their own lives.

Variations in approach may be made, depending on the material read and the purposes of the activity. The duration of the lesson may vary anywhere from twenty minutes to the entire class period.

The DRA can help all students understand the content they read. The teacher can determine the degree of understanding, and can correct any misconceptions through discussion that follows reading specific portions of the assignment. Student interaction through such discussion can lead to mutual understanding for all students. The DRA can be perhaps most productive for the poorer student who finds a sizeable gap between his or her reading ability and the reading level of the text.

Vocabulary Development

For students to read content material well, they must understand the vocabulary of the content and have well developed word-recognition skills. When reading content materials, students constantly encounter new words, as well as familiar vocabulary with new meanings. Through purposeful reading assignments, such as the SQ3R and DRA activities, the learning of vocabulary can be integrated into meaningful activities.

It is sound practice to teach vocabulary when the concepts represented by the words are being taught and discussed. Teaching vocabulary as an isolate is a less productive activity. Some vocabulary is unique to social studies; i.e., words like "colony," "social class," "democracy," "political party," and "judicial."

Many words with a specific meaning in social studies have a more general meaning; for example: "cabinet," "minister," "due process," "culture," "race" and "labor movement." Students often become confused and apply the more common meaning. The specific, or social studies, meaning must be taught, for it cannot be assumed that all students understand it.

Some Techniques for Teaching Vocabulary

- Hold class discussions of words related to the daily assignment.
- Help students with the pronunciation of difficult words.
- Have students discuss the meanings of words from context clues.
- Acquaint students with roots, prefixes and suffixes frequently used in social studies.
- Acquaint students with the varied meanings of multiple-meaning words.

Reinforcement of Word Recognition Skills

Social studies teachers can help reinforce word-recognition skills while presenting new vocabulary. To develop skills in phonetic analysis, the phonetic characteristics of words can be pointed out to strengthen students' abilities to attack unknown words. Skills of structural analysis can be strengthened by pointing out commonly used root words, prefixes, and suffixes used in social studies. The use of context clues to understand strange words is very important. The teacher can reinforce the use of context by asking students to discuss clues and to make educated guesses about the meaning of strange words. If students can use context well, it indicates an understanding of the material.

Developing Vocabulary Notebooks

Time limits the amount of vocabulary that can be taught directly, so techniques for individual vocabulary study should also be employed. One such technique involves the development of individual student vocabulary notebooks. Students can keep notebooks to enter words which they feel are important for understanding their assignments and words which they find difficult. The notebooks should be unique to each student. Word meanings should be written in the student's own words. Initially, the teacher should collect and review all notebooks; but after students have established the habit of keeping notebooks, only random review is necessary.

Study Skills

Locational and organizational study skills are considered reading-language arts skills, and these skills are an integral part of activities in any social studies classroom. Students need continuous aid in developing sophistication in the application of these skills. Too often these skills are taught in isolation, without direct application to classroom assignments. Also, some teachers assume that students have mastered the skills because they were introduced in the lower grades; and they fail to provide the needed reinforcement. Shepherd says, "These skills are best developed as they apply to the instructional material in class. Direct application should be made to the specific paragraph, chapter, graph, picture, etc., which is needed for clearer understanding of the subject information."[16]

The following are some examples of study skills:

Locational Skills
Parts of a Book
Alphabetizing
Using References
Ability To Use the Library
Use of Maps, Graphs, and Charts

Organizational Skills
Construction of an Outline
Ability To Summarize
Ability To Take Notes
Writing Reports

When teaching locational skills, such as use of the card catalogue and the use of specific reference materials, the school librarian will often team with the social studies teacher. Also, English teachers may cooperate in teaching organizational skills, such as outlining, summarizing, and report writing.

The teaching of study skills can be easily integrated into classroom activities, and can result not only in improved use of the skills but in increased learning of content.

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 191.

Note: All of the techniques presented above are applicable to upper elementary and secondary classrooms. The degree of difficulty should vary from one grade level to another, and adjustments should be made for individual differences.

NOTE: This *How To Do It* Notebook Series 2, designed for a loose-leaf binder, provides a practical and useful source of classroom methods and techniques for elementary and secondary social studies teachers. The titles now available in Series 2 are: *Improving Reading Skills in Social Studies, Effective Use of Films in Social Studies Classrooms*, and *Reach for a Picture*. Price per copy, $1.00. Quantity discounts: 10–49 copies, 10%; 50–99 copies, 15%; 100 or more copies, 20%. Payment must accompany all orders except those on official institutional purchase order forms. Order from the NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES, 1515 Wilson Boulevard, Suite #1, Arlington, Virginia 22209.